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ABSTRACT

The implications of six national reports for social studies are examined. These implications are compared with past and present practices in the social studies and the ways in which the reports fail to give useful guidance to teachers are noted. An introductory chapter presents a broad overview of the six reports: "The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto" (Adler, 1982), "High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America" (Boyer, 1983), "Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need to Know and Be Able to Do" (The College Board, 1983), "A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future" (Goodlad, 1983), "A Nation at Risk: The Imperative of Educational Reform" (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), and "Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School" (Sizer, 1984). The second section focuses on the effects of these reports on social studies education, specifically regarding the goals of social education, curriculum organization and selection of subject matter, effective forms of teaching, and evaluation of student performance. Implications regarding time allotted for social studies, common core curriculum, specific content to be taught, and the organization of social studies into a meaningful sequence are considered. The final section examines the usefulness of the reports for teachers. While noting that the reports offer little assistance in resolving critical issues on social studies, the document stresses that the calls for quality in education can be used to support continuing work on these issues. A list of 53 references and an annotated list of related resources in ERIC conclude the document. (LH)

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Implications of Six Reports

Fred M. Newmann

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EDUCATIONAL REFORM AND SOCIAL STUDIES: IMPLICATIONS OF SIX REPORTS

Fred M. Newmann

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education
Boulder, Colorado
1985

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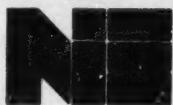
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CONTENTS

FOREWORD	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. EFFECT OF REPORTS ON SOCIAL STUDIES	5
Goals of Social Education	5
Curriculum Organization and Selection of Subject Matter	9
Time for Social Studies	9
Common Core Curriculum	10
Specific Content	12
Sequence	13
Effective Teaching	14
Evaluation of Student Performance	18
Summary	21
III. USEFULNESS OF THE REPORTS FOR TEACHERS	23
NOTES	25
REFERENCES	27
RELATED RESOURCES IN THE ERIC SYSTEM	33

FOREWORD

The large number of reports on "excellence" in education that have appeared in the last two years is greatly exceeded by the number of commentaries on these reports that have been published. Few of those commentaries have explored the implications of the reports for social studies teaching. Fred Newmann's contribution is therefore particularly significant for the social studies profession.

Fred Newmann is especially well qualified to undertake this analysis of and commentary on six of the major reports. He has had broad experience in curriculum development and planning and is thoroughly familiar with the functioning of schools. He has also had experience in high school and college teaching, in teacher education, and as a consultant to schools and school districts. He has written extensively on the theory, practice, and evaluation of social studies.

In this survey and analysis, Newmann draws out the implications of the reports for social studies, compares these implications with past and present practices in social studies, and notes the ways in which the reports fail to give useful guidance to teachers. Readers will find this to be a succinct, useful review of the six reports and, equally useful, a guide to current needs in social studies teaching.

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I

INTRODUCTION

Since 1982 at least 30 national reports on education reform have appeared in the United States, and reviews of several of them are plentiful.¹ Without detailed analysis of teaching in any particular subject, the reports offer general recommendations on curriculum, teaching, testing, staff compensation and development, leadership, and community support. None of the reports receiving wide public attention has provided a comprehensive analysis of social studies comparable to the five publications of Project SPAN summarized by Morrisett (1982), but the general reports could, nevertheless, have substantial impact on the field, and they offer useful stimuli for social studies educators to contribute to the wider debate on schooling. This paper, therefore, explores implications of the reports for social studies teachers.

Rather than reviewing each report, this paper offers a selective synthesis. It concentrates on the following six reports, chosen because they represent diverse approaches and because they speak at least in some ways to social studies: Adler (1982), *The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto*; Boyer (1983), *High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America*; The College Board (1983), *Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need to Know and Be Able to Do*; Goodlad (1983), *A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future*; National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), *A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*; andSizer (1984), *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*.

The review asks, "How would the teaching of social studies be affected if major recommendations in the six reports were adopted?" It describes points of consensus, issues of disagreement, and significant concerns in the field that remain inadequately addressed. A synthesis of this sort is no substitute for an educator's own thoughtful reading of any of the reports, but hopefully it will assist teachers in making sense of the general body of literature.

The six reports produced their conclusions through different sponsoring agencies and processes of deliberation. Boyer, Goodlad, andSizer each

collected extensive original data in schools, but their designs and the way they tied their research to conclusions varied considerably. The federally-appointed National Commission on Excellence commissioned numerous papers and gathered public testimony throughout the country. In contrast, the Paideia Group, an independent body, deliberated in relative privacy without public funding. The College Board project generated discussions throughout the country among high school and college educators to reach consensus about performance standards for college entrance.

Four of the reports focus on high schools. Adler and Goodlad discuss the entire K-12 grade structure, but their recommendations are not directed toward particular grades. Although research on human development indicates critical periods in social learning during childhood, we cannot look to these reports for much guidance about education prior to high school.²

The reports' recommendations are too numerous to list here, and they extend beyond the issues of curriculum to pre-service teacher education, educational finance, conditions of teachers' work, and relationships among local, state, and federal agencies. The following summaries are intended as brief introductions to recommendations in each report that seem most relevant to social studies education.

Adler (1982, 1983) recommends a single curriculum in general education for all students K-12, with possibilities for electives only in the study of a second language. The curriculum should be organized around the three main areas of language, literature, and the fine arts; mathematics and natural science; and history, geography, and social studies. Goals should focus on acquisition of knowledge, development of intellectual skills, and enlarged understanding of ideas and values. Teaching practices must be changed to include more emphasis upon the "coaching" of students and upon probing discussions to stimulate greater depth of understanding.

The National Commission on Excellence (1983, henceforth "the Commission") recommends general content for "New Basics" in high school: English (4 yrs.), mathematics (3 yrs.), science (3 yrs.), social studies (3 yrs.), computer science ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.). The Commission also recommends raising academic standards through standardized testing and more systematic criteria for textbook adoption; increasing the time spent in school and on homework; raising standards for teacher preparation and increasing financial incentives for teaching; and using local leadership and funding to bring about the reforms.

Boyer (1983) proposes a core high school curriculum, focused on literacy and language, but adds to the four main subjects requirements in art, health, work, and community service. Guidance services should be

expanded to aid in career planning beyond high school. Teaching techniques should be diverse, with flexibility in scheduling and emphasis on active student participation. Schools must establish close connections with business and other community institutions and more authority for educational planning should be given to local schools. A number of recommendations are made regarding teachers' preparation, salary, work load, and incentives for professional development.

The College Board (1983) confined its attention to what college-bound students "need to know and be able to do" at the end of high school. The report identifies basic academic competencies in reading, writing, speaking and listening, mathematics, reasoning, and studying. It describes computer competency as an emerging need, and it specifies what should be achieved in each of the basic academic subjects: English, the arts, mathematics, science, social studies, and foreign languages. The recommendations were developed through extensive discussions with high school and college level educators.

Goodlad (1983) emphasizes increasing local school site control; more planning time for teachers; a core curriculum in the areas of language, math/science, social studies, art, and vocations; ungraded classes that maximize interaction between older and younger children; the use of peer teaching and cooperative learning; and the creation of schools-within-schools where teachers work in teams with small groups of students over several years. To vitalize teaching, major emphasis would be given to development of instructional leaders in the teaching teams. Formal schooling for general education would be offered across the ages of 4-16, in three phases of four years. A fourth phase at age 16, organized largely around experiential education and community agencies, would focus on independent work, study, and volunteer service as a transition to adult life.

Sizer (1984), arguing that high school should be devoted essentially to development of mind and character (not specific vocational preparation), calls for simplifying the high school curriculum to study in greater depth four main areas: inquiry and expression; mathematics and science; literature and the arts; philosophy and history. He proposes new evaluation systems based on multiple indices of student performance, rather than completion of course credits. Teachers must be given far more time to respond to students' work through a personalized form of coaching that would require major reductions in the number of students they are required to teach. Bureaucratic structures must be altered to give local school staffs an opportunity to develop high expectations for students built upon trust rather than formal regulations.

II

EFFECT OF REPORTS ON SOCIAL STUDIES

Although they spend relatively little time discussing social studies, adoption of the reports' recommendations could affect social studies classrooms. Several reports have already been used to justify local school improvement efforts and new policies ranging from increased graduation requirements to career ladders for teachers. The task here is not to speculate upon the reports' general policy implications nor to analyze the social-political climate in which they must ultimately be understood, but to concentrate on their possible effects on social studies. Let us take the recommendations at face value and ask, "If schools implemented, or seriously attempted to implement these ideas, how would social studies teaching be affected?" We shall be interested in the ease with which recommendations could be implemented, the degree to which social studies teaching would change or remain the same, and the extent to which persistent problems within the social studies profession would be resolved. The analysis is organized around four issues typically discussed in professional literature: the goals of social education; curriculum organization and selection of subject matter; effective forms of teaching; and evaluation of student performance.

GOALS OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

Each of the reports endorses citizenship or civic understanding as a basic purpose of schooling. Most propose mastery of knowledge in history along with skills of inquiry and they reflect a conception of the "rational citizen," aware of cultural heritage and contemporary institutions, committed to maintaining democratic society. Each report argues for local control of content; thus few specific recommendations for content are made. Nevertheless, the reports reflect subtle differences in philosophy of social education.

Adler offers the familiar argument that universal suffrage demands an electorate educated in the basic ideas and institutions of democracy, and skilled in carrying on discussions grounded in a common set of ideas such as those reflected in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, the *Federalist Papers*, and the Gettysburg Address. The study of history, geography, and social studies, emphasizing not simply acquisition of knowledge, but the development of intellectual skills and enlarged understanding (through active inquiry), should cultivate the exercise of responsible citizenship.

Of the six reports, Boyer offers the most detailed and comprehensive recommendations on social education. Critical thought through the mastery of language is the foundation for the high school curriculum. He advocates a philosophy of global human interdependence, the need to emphasize the commonalities that tie people of different culture together. The study of history (United States, Western civilization, and non-Western civilization) should develop a sense of this common heritage. In addition, schools must promote a positive obligation of community service in all students; and Boyer proposes a community service requirement of 120 hours for graduation.

The College Board specifies a number of skills in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and reasoning relevant to citizenship, but without drawing explicit connection to the specifics of civic life. Its proposed knowledge objectives emphasize understanding of political and economic institutions, historical perspective, a grasp of the social sciences and of trends in the contemporary world, and familiarity with diverse ways of interpreting data in written, numerical, and visual forms. Aimed largely toward preparation for college, the report includes no explicit discussion of social education, but its advocacy for equal access to college stresses relevant benefits of improved education to individuals and to the nation.

Goodlad surveyed parents, teachers, and students regarding the importance they place on intellectual, vocational, personal, and social goals of schooling, and found that social goals usually ranked third or fourth. He also surveyed written goal statements of education agencies and proposed a synthesis of social goals for schools and communities to consider. He did not present a detailed philosophy of social studies education in this report, but argued that local schools must work to develop their own goals. Regardless of the outcomes of this process, Goodlad takes a strong stand in favor of equal access to knowledge for all groups, a general education for all, development of active inquiry and thinking, and respect for individual differences.

The Commission describes its work as an attempt to increase national productivity to compete more effectively in the international market. Without offering an explicit rationale for social education, its recommendations for social studies emphasize student understanding of places and possibilities within the larger social and cultural structure, of broad historical and contemporary ideas, of the economic and political system, and of the differences between free and repressive societies. Such understandings are considered necessary to the informed and committed exercise of citizenship.

Sizer's major goals are the development of mind and character. He stresses concentrated studies that allow students to pursue a few topics in depth and to develop complicated thought processes. He endorses the importance of civic understanding in a manner similar to Adler: grasping the essentials of consensual democratic government and the restraints and obligations of citizenship summarized in the Bill of Rights. The promotion of character must focus on the idea of *decency*, that is, fairness, generosity, and tolerance. These aspects of social education must be insisted upon, and pursued sensitively by schools, but Sizer takes great pains to explain why public schools as agencies of the state should make no more specific efforts to influence students' social or personal development. These matters, argues Sizer, must be left to individuals and to communities of parents who may organize private schools with more specific social or religious agendas in mind.

These reports offer almost no discussion of the complicated issues in rationales for social education that have been discussed in the social studies literature (e.g., Shaver and Berlak, 1968; Shaver and Strong, 1976; Barr, Barth, and Shermis, 1978; Morrissett and Haas, 1982). The exceptions are Boyer (1981) who advocates a philosophy of human interdependence and commonality similar to his previous statements, and Sizer who offers a thoughtful discussion of the problem of the right of state schools and private schools to teach particular values to students.

As a whole, the reports reiterate a conception of citizenship that has been endorsed for years by most schools. Repeatedly they call for an understanding of history and human institutions, implying that fundamental issues in social organization have been essentially resolved (e.g., through the U.S. Constitution, the Bill of Rights, capitalism, and modern technology); if only people understood the foundations of democratic civilization, peace and justice would prevail. None of the reports preaches blind patriotism, and all advocate development of complex thinking skills. But no report emphasizes the need to build a social critique, to stimulate assertive citizen action toward a higher public good, or to participate in the generation of social knowledge itself.

To be sure, the reports differ in tone and the aspects of citizenship they emphasize. Goodlad's andSizer's concerns for individually-oriented humanistic learning contrast with the nationalistic manpower images of the Commission. Boyer's insistence on the interdependence and commonalities that bind us all, and the obligation to serve one's community, can be taken as a challenge to dominant values that glorify individual or national self-interest. In spite of these variations, the reports' goals for social education represent no fundamental change in the language of citizenship, and they could probably be adopted without controversy in most schools, to serve the purpose which Haas (1979) described as conservative cultural continuity.

Apart from recommendations that schools pursue the particular goals mentioned above, these reports (especially those of Boyer, Goodlad, andSizer), along with other recent research, stress the need for school-wide consensus on educational goals. School responses to diverse constituencies have often led to goal confusion, diffusion, and contradiction, which impede school effectiveness. A major challenge, therefore, is to define a clear mission for the school that attracts support from the entire school community. While emphasizing the importance of goal consensus on a presumably restricted set of goals, the reports give almost no attention to the political functions of goal statements. Goals can be stated in sufficiently general terms (e.g., critical thinking or responsible citizenship) so as to attract apparent consensus from diverse interests; the endorsement of slogans can maintain apparent harmony by obscuring fundamental disagreements.

Social studies educators support citizenship goals similar to those in the reports, but they remain notorious for their disagreements over priorities for social education. The field contains at least seven academic disciplines, plus a variety of special areas (e.g., law-related education, global education, area studies, ethnic studies, moral reasoning, community studies). Tensions exist between specific preparation for college versus general citizenship goals, and between alternative approaches to value issues (e.g., teacher as neutral, noncommittal observer, as a devil's advocate, or as defender of democratic values) and between the horns of several other dilemmas (Berlak and Berlak, 1981). Rather than confronting these conflicts explicitly and resolving them at a departmental or school level, schools instead tend to give teachers the autonomy to define their own goals. Usually any of these positions can fit under the umbrella slogans, such as "responsible citizenship," or "global interdependence," but students are likely to receive different messages from different teachers regarding the meaning of citizenship. If schools were to adopt the recommendation

to work toward goal consensus to the point of reaching agreement on specific social teachings, social studies educators in many schools would face an enormous challenge in conflict resolution.

The reports fail in two major ways to assist in the building of consensus on the goals of social education. As mentioned above, they offer no synthesis or analysis of an extensive literature within the social studies field or the substantive problem of constructing an adequate rationale (for examples of detailed rationales, see Hunt and Metcalf, 1968; Oliver and Shaver, 1974; Newmann, 1975). In addition to the intellectual challenge of devising a rationale that inspires consensus, there is the practical problem of how to bring colleagues within schools together to work cooperatively toward articulation of goals more educationally useful than current slogans. Research on teaching has shown the isolation and individualistic nature of teacher work (especially in high schools), but efforts have also been made to stimulate collaboration and collegial processes in school staffs. Boyer, Goodlad, and Sizer recognize this problem, and emphasize that it be addressed, but offer few suggestions about how to facilitate it. Until there is more discussion of precisely how to develop collegiality and goal consensus in schools (and within social studies departments) previously characterized by teacher isolation or dissension, recommendations for agreement on goals will not be very helpful.

The reports also leave unresolved another issue related to goals. On the one hand they endorse the need for local school staff to define specific educational objectives and procedures, unconstrained by demands of distant centralized requirements. On the other hand, each of the reports prescribes an outline of goals and procedures presumably desirable for all schools. The reports vary in the degree of specificity in their recommendations, and all leave considerable room for schools to maneuver within recommended guidelines. Nevertheless, each report reflects the tension between goals centrally developed for universal adoption versus those locally developed to serve particularistic needs. In a sense each report presents us with an apparent contradiction: Every school should be free to determine its own goals, curriculum, and teaching procedures, but the more they depart from the ones suggested here, the more deficient their education is likely to be. This issue, of course, is not unique to social studies.

CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION AND SELECTION OF SUBJECT MATTER

Time for Social Studies. All reports recommend a significant place for social studies in the curriculum, along with the traditional subjects of

English, math, and science. Reports that make specific recommendations for time and credit (Boyer, Goodlad, the Commission) call for about three years in high school (which amounts to about 15 percent of a high school program of 20 credits); the only subject to receive more emphasis is English. At the elementary level, Goodlad found teachers spending an average of about 12 percent of their instructional time on social studies (school averages ranged from 10 percent to 19 percent), exceeded by math (20 percent) and English-language arts (34 percent) (p. 133). The average hours per week in social studies increased from 2.09 in the early elementary grades to 3.83 in upper elementary grades (p. 199). While Goodlad objects to the tremendous variation between schools in curricular balance, he recommends no major departures from the average elementary patterns, and he concurs with other reports in advocating a minimum of 15 percent for social studies at the secondary level. Such recommendations for the amount of time spent in social studies will be relatively easy to implement, because they represent no significant departures from current practice. Most high school graduates already take three or four years of social studies (Owings and Brown, 1983). Although the reports will have no major impact regarding time spent in social studies, their almost unanimous call for a common curriculum for all students could have significant implications.

Common Core Curriculum. According to several reports, the profusion of electives in high schools in the late 1960s and the practice of curriculum tracking has denied students equal access to a meaningful general education. Most of the reports recommend a common curriculum for all students, occupying about two-thirds of the high school curriculum. The College Board is concerned only with college-bound students, but its strongly-stated position that all students have equal opportunity for college admission can be considered equivalent to a proposal that all students take college preparatory work.

The reports vary in the specificity of their recommendations for the content of the common curriculum, but they agree in urging an increase in the proportion of time that students study the same things and a decrease of specialization and tracking that produce vast differences in student learning. Reports by Adler, Boyer, and Goodlad make the most forceful statements against the inequities of curriculum tracking. But no report discusses the extent to which it would permit segregation of students by ability either within classes or between classes. It can be argued that ability grouping to make instruction more effective does not (theoretically) preclude teaching a common curriculum to all. In practice, however, it has often been found that different forms of knowledge are delivered to

different ability groups even when they are supposed to be learning a common curriculum.

To assess the effect of core curriculum recommendations we should first ask about the current extent of common versus differentiated curriculum in social studies. Grades K-8 currently do provide a common general education within each school, because electives are rarely offered. At the high school level, many electives are offered in social studies. Without analysis of student transcripts, it is difficult to generalize, but some reviews do suggest a common pattern of course titles for most students: civics or government in grade 9; Western civilization or world history in grade 10; and U.S. history in grade 11 (Lengel and Superka, 1982). Observers of social studies have noticed a high degree of consensus among different textbooks and a number of dominant social learnings communicated to students even in courses with ostensibly different knowledge content (Stake and Easley, 1978). Furthermore, national assessments of social studies find that on the average, 17-year-old students answer more than 60 percent of the test items correctly (National Assessment of Education Progress, 1983). These observations suggest that a certain common repertoire of knowledge is already offered in social studies.

Of course, much variation can exist within a presumably standard set of required courses. Teachers differ greatly in their knowledge and interest in social studies topics, and schools usually give them great autonomy to interpret broad mandates according to individual professional judgment. For a given topic, teachers may respond differently to individual students depending upon ability, race, gender, social class, or personality. Even if students' transcripts show identical course titles, and texts are similar, rather large disparities can remain in the specific content and form of knowledge communicated to different groups of students (Keddie, 1971; Sharp and Green, 1975; Goodlad, 1983; Page, 1984). From this point of view, adopting a specific common curriculum in social studies would involve a radical change in most schools.

Teachers' reluctance to subject all students to an extensive and highly specific common curriculum in social studies is due in part to disputes about the nature of the field, in part to teachers' desires for professional autonomy, and in part to their concern for meeting authentic intellectual needs of students who differ. If students are to become meaningfully engaged in social inquiry, the curriculum must respond to some extent to unique and unanticipated interests of individual students. When it is difficult to substantiate a universal need for any given body of social knowledge, authentic individual student interests become all the more legitimate as guides for curriculum. In the absence of standardized,

highly specific examinations required for high school graduation, these forces present formidable obstacles to a common core in social studies.³

Specific Content Beyond expectations for the teaching of history and social science disciplines, social studies teachers are consistently bombarded with requests to deal with a variety of socially significant topics such as global interdependence, multicultural awareness, discrimination and inequality, environmental destruction, law-related studies, and the history of women, workers, or ethnic communities. Because it would seem desirable for students to have such knowledge, almost every proposal, considered alone, is justified. On the other hand, there is never enough time to teach all that might be desirable to learn. Priorities must be set. What criteria should be used to select some content as most fundamental and to exclude other areas as less important?

Adler, Goodlad, andSizer prescribe virtually no specific content.⁴ The Commission offers a short paragraph on general topics (see p. 6). The College Board proposes 23 general points to be covered (pp. 25-27). Boyer gives the most detailed discussion of social studies, but he treats U.S. history, Western civilization, non-Western civilization, and civics in only five pages (pp. 100-105). For the most part, then, the reports refrain from proposals for specific content; instead they stress general themes. As illustrations, the College Board mentions "the chronology and significance of major events and movements in world history (for example, the Renaissance, the Industrial Revolution, and the spread of Islam)," and Boyer suggests "a study of the lives of a few influential leaders—artists, reformers, explorers who helped shape the nation." To the extent that specific content is mentioned, the main emphasis in each report is upon history rather than upon social science. Boyer's curriculum, for example, contains no reference to the social sciences, and the College Board allocates about 75 percent of its comments to history, 25 percent to social science.

While specific topics such as the Bill of Rights or the Holocaust are suggested, the persistently difficult decisions about which specific topics to include and to exclude from the curriculum are not discussed; the dominant emphasis upon history in contrast to other social sciences or studies of contemporary issues is not defended. Because of the vague character of proposed content guidelines, many teachers can justifiably conclude that they have been teaching material of this sort for years, and since the reports offer no new rationale for selection of content, much of the reports' discussions of social studies is likely to be ignored.

Nevertheless, Boyer andSizer may offer some comfort to teachers wearied by the trade-off between breadth and depth. Both authors would sacrifice much in coverage in order to gain greater depth, andSizer feels

so strongly about this as to suggest that conventional courses and credits could be abolished. In the place of separate courses in history and social sciences,Sizer proposes two general areas of study related to social studies—philosophy and history, inquiry and expression—in which content would be selected not to convey a broad, sweeping survey of social experience, but to probe particular questions in detail. Much work remains for the teacher to organize specific content for such studies, but the pressure to cover vast amounts of material superficially would be removed.

Studying fewer topics in greater depth may gain the endorsement of many educators, but its implementation is likely to be resisted. Current practice focuses largely on coverage, as indicated by the enormous range of topics included in textbooks and by teachers' familiar comments that they are behind schedule ("I have only one month of school left, and we haven't even covered World War II"). The pressure to cover many topics is intensified by the nature of texts, state and local curriculum guides with long lists of content, standardized tests requiring knowledge on a multitude of topics, groups continuously pressing the schools to add new topics to the curriculum. Another ally of coverage over depth is the conventional wisdom that one might alleviate much of the boredom of schooling by changing often to a new topic. Teachers speak with regret about the superficial learning which their surveys of many topics convey, but because of pressures such as these they will find it extremely difficult to alter selection of content in the direction of depth rather than coverage. None of the reports offers concrete suggestions as to how a teaching staff might mitigate the pressures of coverage.

Sequence. Apart from the question of what to teach, social studies educators continuously struggle with the problem of how to organize social studies into a meaningful sequence, grades K-12. Teachers in lower grades would like assurance that their work is further developed as students progress through higher grades. Teachers in higher grades want entering students to have mastered certain fundamentals so that more complex instruction is possible. None of the reports, however, recommends any particular sequence of instruction, either within secondary schools or across the K-12 span.⁵

Perhaps sequence was considered only a minor problem compared to other issues (e.g., time requirements, pedagogy, or teacher quality). Considering the nature of the field, perhaps sequence was considered an area in which local decision making is most critical to preserve. Social studies, in contrast to other disciplines such as math, science, or language, claims no compelling hierarchy of content dictating that certain material must be mastered before other material can be comprehended.⁶

In light of the substantial literature dealing with the psychological, social, and intellectual development of youth, the remarkable controversies over the organization of schooling into elementary, middle, and high schools to respond to stages in youth development, and continuing concerns for lack of coordination between levels (e.g., repeating U.S. history in 5th, 8th, and 11th grade), it is surprising that none of the reports offer assistance on the question of curriculum sequence. This is not to suggest that a particular sequence should be proposed, but that the issue should be thoughtfully discussed, even if only to explain why no particular plan of organization is proposed.

Except for schooling during the early elementary years, curriculum is fragmented, both in the chronological sense discussed above, and in the horizontal sense that there are few opportunities for students to integrate knowledge among an increasingly differentiated set of subjects. Even if an intensive common curriculum were implemented in specific subjects, there would be no assurance that students would learn to relate knowledge from diverse areas. Among the reports, only Boyer andSizer address this issue. Boyer proposes three reforms to enhance integration of students' learning: a required course on technology that includes the history of man's use of tools, the relationship of science to technology, and the ethical and social issues raised by technology; a required senior independent project in which students study a significant social issue by drawing upon several fields in the academic core; and programs in which high schools establish relationships with institutions beyond school (libraries, museums, industrial laboratories) to link school knowledge to life in the larger community, a point that Goodlad also emphasizes. Sizer addresses the fragmentation problem mainly through his argument for the study of fewer subjects in greater depth.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING

Some of the reports address teaching practices in general, and several discuss the working conditions of teachers, but none recommends teaching practices unique to social studies.

Adler distinguishes three forms of teaching and argues that all are needed: didactic instruction through lecture, texts, and other aids; coaching, exercises and supervised practice; and socratic questioning and active student participation in inquiry. In most classrooms, didactic techniques prevail and socratic dialogue and active inquiry are least observed. Coaching or the giving of frequent feedback on individual mastery of skills

may be more commonly found than active inquiry, but according to Adler, far more time should be spent both in coaching and socratic dialogue.

Boyer recommends several changes to improve the working conditions of teachers, especially increasing the time available for preparation and professional renewal and opportunities for collegial decision making. His conception of good teaching echoes Adler's concern for active coaching and high expectations for all students, along with several "common sense" virtues such as enthusiasm for and command of the subject, careful planning, monitoring of student accomplishments, respect for students, integrity, and warmth as a human being. Boyer also recommends specific techniques such as use of primary sources and role playing.

The College Board does not discuss effective teaching practices.

Goodlad presents new descriptive data on classroom teaching. Without distinguishing social studies from other areas, his most striking finding (confirmed in other studies such as Stake and Easley, 1978) was the generally emotionally flat tone of classrooms where students spend most of their time listening to teachers or completing worksheets that make only minimal cognitive demands. More active teaching occurs in the early elementary grades, in the arts or vocational subjects, and students report greater satisfaction for classes where active learning occurs. Like Adler and Boyer, Goodlad emphasizes the need for increased interaction between teachers and individual students, focused on praise and corrective guidance. Goodlad also recommends increasing the amount of class time devoted to instruction and reducing extreme variation between schools in instructional time.

The Commission recommends increasing instructional time, assigning more homework, and reducing interruptions and administrative burdens, but it fails to discuss specific teaching practices.

Sizer constructs portraits of individual teachers (e.g., in English, electronics, math) to illustrate the concrete human situations that his recommendations address. A typical problem is an unspoken agreement between teachers and students in many classrooms: students agree to play the game without making trouble for teacher if teacher agrees not to make rigorous academic demands on the students. Sizer discusses in some detail the challenge for teachers to develop high expectations and to create a supportive atmosphere where students may find the risks and even the failures of learning rewarding rather than threatening. Active teaching through coaching and socratic inquiry are required in such classrooms, but these approaches must be supported by several reforms in teachers' working conditions such as staff stability, uninterrupted teaching time, room for teachers to plan instruction, and reductions in work load or changes in

scheduling to allow more frequent and thoughtful responses to students' work.

Adler, Boyer, Goodlad, andSizer seem united in the plea for teachers to put more effort into specific feedback aimed toward improving individual students' work and into activities that stimulate inquiry and problem solving beyond acquisition of information. According to observational data in Boyer, Goodlad, Sizer, and previous studies of social studies instruction, (especially Stake and Easley, 1978), such teaching techniques are rare; to shift from prevailing didactic styles to more active coaching and socratic inquiry would involve a major change. The reports strongly assert the need for such change, but they offer little guidance about how to accomplish it.

Many teachers disagree with generalizations that characterize classrooms as emotionally flat and dominated by boring didactic instruction. They can often point to examples of student excitement, active engagement, and the use of a variety of teaching techniques (simulations, source materials, community experiences, student discussions, student independent research projects). But even if the characterization of dull, didactic teaching is accepted the reports have not proven that the alternative styles of coaching and socratic inquiry necessarily produce more positive student outcomes.⁷ Teachers would probably desire more time to improve their teaching, but many must also believe that their current practices are effective.⁸ The reports' discussions of teaching are unlikely to persuade these teachers that major changes in pedagogy are needed.

Aspects of social studies both invite and inhibit the more active forms of teaching which the reports recommend. On the one hand, social life can be investigated through questions that reveal ambiguity and that stimulate discussion and imaginative thought beyond the acquisition of facts or mechanistic application of rules. Such inquiry is necessary if we wish to make probable historical claims based on incomplete evidence, to construct causal explanations of social phenomena, or to build persuasive arguments to defend policy choices. Concepts in the field that cannot be defined with certainty (e.g., equality, progress, national interest) require analysis and active testing rather than conclusive memorized definitions. Some skills and ideas require much feedback and cannot be learned without active forms of teaching.

Much in social studies aims to expand the students' experience across time and culture, but since it is impossible for the student to encounter most of this experience directly, it must be presented by authors, film producers, or teachers who tell their tales through print, nonprint media, and the live classroom voice. Our desire that students learn about governments, wars, architecture, production, and human value systems thus requires

that much time be spent essentially telling stories and describing social life to students. The mere assimilation of such experiences into students' consciousness seems to demand a considerable amount of direct transmission of information. Ideally, of course, the stories should be told in ways that capture students' attention and the material should be eventually acted upon as the student probes for meaning beyond the narrative. Nevertheless, initial learning of the material often calls for didactic presentations rather than coaching and active inquiry. This aspect of the field creates an apparent conflict which may not be as salient in other areas such as math or foreign language: on the one hand there is a need to transmit much information to students, which implies a pedagogy of didactically "telling stories"; on the other, to be meaningful, the information must be manipulated and reflected upon by students, which implies a pedagogy of interaction and open inquiry, rather than simply receiving and storing information.

Educators committed to the reports' emphasis on coaching and socratic inquiry will find no concrete assistance in how to incorporate more of these approaches in social studies teaching. Separate literatures within social studies dealing with the teaching of history, economics, law-related education, analysis of public controversy, or moral reasoning offer more specific suggestions, as does literature on techniques such as cooperative learning or simulations. In spite of much research within the social studies field and elsewhere, knowledge about the nature of effective coaching, teacher questioning, and guiding of discussion remains general and intuitive; we cannot point to specific practices that have been proven effective in a variety of teaching situations and can be easily replicated by most teachers.

Active inquiry in social studies classrooms is stifled not only by lack of pedagogical knowledge, but also by organizational obstacles, e.g., class sizes and teaching loads that prevent teachers from responding carefully to an individual student's work, lack of opportunity for teacher collaboration, and standardized tests in which factual recall and application dominate over critical thinking skills. All militate against active coaching and socratic inquiry. Boyer, Goodlad, andSizer each show concern for the working conditions of teachers, butSizer makes the strongest and most specific case for organizational changes more conducive to active student inquiry.

Glaringly absent in these reports is discussion of teaching techniques that emphasize the student as an independent learner able to find resources and to learn without constant supervision. Instead, the reports emphasize the need for teachers to supervise more closely and to interact more intensely with students in courses structured to produce specific learning

outcomes. This image contrasts with pedagogy aimed to encourage student independent work through projects and research ventures in the school and the community where the teacher functions largely as a guide, a resource person, and a facilitator, but not as the main source of substantive knowledge. Except for Boyer, who recommends that each senior engage in an independent project intended to synthesize knowledge from a variety of areas, the reports neglect a considerable volume of work on "experiential learning" (e.g., Gibbons, 1976; Hamilton, 1980; Conrad and Hedin, 1981). This is particularly unfortunate for the field of social studies which offers countless opportunities for students to conduct original explorations in their immediate social worlds through oral histories, community surveys, investigative reporting, social advocacy, or local historical preservation. Teachers interested in activities of this sort will find little encouragement in these reports.

EVALUATION OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE

Except for the College Board, none of the reports specifically addresses social studies evaluation. They do, however, make general recommendations for assessing student progress, and they differ with regard to four main issues: (1) the emphasis given to academic versus other forms of achievement; (2) the use of evaluation for public credentialing rather than for private diagnostic feedback; (3) the reinforcement of centrally-developed national norms for mastery in contrast to locally-developed criteria; and (4) the reliance upon single versus multiple indicators of student achievement in any given area.

Reflecting their priorities on educational goals, Adler, the Commission, and the College Board focus almost exclusively on academic achievement. Only the latter, however, specifies in any detail the particular skills and knowledge to be achieved. In contrast, Boyer's concerns for citizenship and vocational development andSizer's for character development reach beyond mastery of academic tasks. Goodlad makes the most explicit statement regarding the need for systematic and continuous assessment of student progress in diverse areas. He advocates equal emphasis on evaluation of students' intellectual, personal, vocational, and social development. None of the reports, whether focusing mainly on academic or diverse forms of achievement, recommends any specific tests or other assessment instruments, although most of them (especially Boyer, Goodlad, the Commission, and Sizer) urge development efforts toward improved assessment of student performance.

Assessments of student performance can offer private feedback to enhance student learning or to create public credentials that assist institutions beyond school in screening students for future opportunities. Most of the reports fail to discuss the possible tensions between these functions of evaluation.

Each report acknowledges the importance of assessment as diagnostic information, but the College Board and the Commission place more emphasis on the need for public certification; i.e., the documentation of student achievement so that colleges or employers can be assured of the competence of applicants. Boyer recommends creation of a new "Student Achievement and Academic Advisement" test to help students make choices beyond high school, and, as proposed, the test would not be used to screen them out of options. Neither Adler norSizer discuss the social functions of assessment in depth, but the apparent purposes ofSizer's proposals for "exhibitions" are to provide both the student and the public with a fair representation of student accomplishment, however the exhibitions may be used. Goodlad most vigorously attacks the screening function of evaluation, especially through standardized tests, and he urges that most emphasis be placed on its constructive potential as a diagnostic teaching aid.

Though none of the reports makes a direct proposal for all students to take required nationally standardized tests, three of them lean in that direction. The College Board represents an attempt to build national consensus among 2,500 colleges and several hundred high schools on the main academic competencies. The Commission calls for a national (but not federally developed) system of state and local standardized tests. Boyer suggests that the efforts of the College Board to build achievement tests must be integrated with the work of the National Assessment of Educational Progress toward the development of a new "Student Achievement and Academic Advisement Test" to overcome several problems of the existing SAT tests. Neither Adler, Goodlad, norSizer recommend national testing. They each affirm the importance of school level initiative in evaluation. Goodlad argues strongly against standardized tests such as the SAT and proposes a network of local evaluation centers to develop new approaches.

Boyer, Goodlad, andSizer take pains to acknowledge the dangers of monolithic evaluation systems. Reliance upon local school initiative and control offers some protection, but this principle alone is insufficient. In addition, the use of multiple, diverse indices of student performance is proposed, andSizer develops this idea most thoroughly. He recommends (along with Boyer) that test performance (whether locally or nationally developed) should be supplemented by other exhibitions of student work;

for example, portfolios that contain products of student achievement (e.g., papers, photos, recordings) and testimony of teachers, work supervisors, and other witnesses who describe the students' competence. Such a multifaceted approach to evaluation, arguesSizer, will give a fairer, more comprehensive, and more educationally motivating assessment than will any single criterion, whether a test or a teacher's evaluation.

Since the reports differ considerably on the evaluation issue, it is difficult to comment on the ease with which recommendations in the whole group might be implemented in social studies classes. Except for Adler, however, all of the reports suggest substantial changes from current evaluation practices. Proposals suggesting national testing of a common core of skills and content (e.g., the Commission, Boyer) might be warmly received by parents and many educators; such tests can be administered without great difficulty. Social studies teachers in particular, however, are likely to raise a number of objections. Given diverse approaches to the field discussed earlier, such tests are likely to infringe upon teacher autonomy in deciding what to teach. Those social studies teachers concerned with the development of social skills, citizenship, and critical thinking will find existing tests deficient in assessment of these areas. Teachers will also raise a number of questions about the use of test results, especially as to their function as social screening devices and whether they are used to judge teacher performance.

The proposals of Boyer andSizer to develop novel, diverse exhibitions of student competence will also confront major obstacles. Many teachers may defend the existing system of grading on the grounds that, with all its faults, it offers an assessment based on multiple criteria: in choosing the grade, the teacher can take into account diverse indications of student competence (substantive knowledge, written and oral skills, citizenship in the classroom, effort, ratings from out-of-school supervisors, individual improvement, etc.). In this sense, a "portfolio" system already exists in many classes. Such teachers may question the necessity of making such exhibitions more public and involving authorities other than the teacher in making decisive determinations about the level of proficiency achieved. Certainly the field of social studies invites recognition of diverse indices of achievement (e.g., the different skills of gathering information, analyzing it, reporting results effectively, and cooperating in group work), but creating formal public mechanisms to certify such accomplishments involves a major change from the conventional practice of summary assessment by individual teachers.

Having indicated how both the conservative and progressive recommendations on evaluation call for substantial changes, we should also note

that the reports fail to discuss at least three major evaluation issues of great concern to teachers. Although grading is one of the most unpleasant aspects of teachers' work, none of the reports explained how to make the system more satisfactory, or how it could be replaced by a more defensible system. Similarly, none of the reports addressed the tension felt by many teachers between judging student success in terms of individual improvement versus group achievement norms. A major concern for social studies teachers is the development of social skills, critical thinking, and attitudes of responsible citizenship, but objective assessment of these goals poses a continuing problem. Written tests, attitude scales, and essays may be given, but may offer invalid information as students can produce socially desirable, though not necessarily internalized, responses. Teachers observing student behavior over the course of an academic year may gain a more valid sense of student development in these areas, but such impressions may be considered too subjective for use in a formal evaluation scheme. In short, the reports have not suggested solutions to the persisting issue of how to evaluate progress toward some of the major goals of social studies education.

SUMMARY

The reports speak only faintly to special concerns of social studies educators, they differ from one another in tone and specific recommendations, and they fail to address a number of issues, the resolution of which would enhance the reports' impact. Nevertheless, if we take the recommendations at face value and assume no major obstacles to implementation, their probable impact on social studies can be summarized.

General goals would resemble previous, widely-accepted slogans regarding informed, responsible citizenship in a democratic society, and social studies staffs would try to create schoolwide consensus on more specific objectives. The time devoted to social studies would remain the same, and there would be no change in the general K-12 sequence of topics, but there would be increased efforts to construct within schools a more specific core curriculum taught to all students. The precise content of the curriculum would be specified locally, but it would also have to be responsive to national and state testing programs. Deliberations over selection of content would reflect a continuing tension between coverage and depth. Teaching practices would change in the direction of increased teacher feedback on students' individual work and increased use of socratic questioning to develop more complex understanding. Class time devoted

to instruction would increase, thanks to fewer interruptions. Teachers would be burdened by fewer housekeeping chores and would have more time to prepare for teaching and for professional development. Evaluation of student performance would be pursued more vigorously through increased use of standardized testing, but also through other ways of demonstrating competence, such as exhibits of student work and testimonials from authorities other than teachers.

III

USEFULNESS OF THE REPORTS FOR TEACHERS

Much of this review indicates how the reports, aimed largely toward policy makers and the general public, fail to address professional concerns of social studies teachers. They offer virtually no guidance on how to arrive at priorities among different goals for social studies, how to select particular content or to organize it into a sequence, how to develop skills in particular teaching techniques, how to test for particular learning outcomes, how to serve students who may fail in a rigorous core curriculum, or how to build morale and cooperative consensus within demoralized and divided staffs. If a teacher were to ask of the reports, "What can I do next week in my classes to stimulate more student excitement and commitment to learning?" he or she would find virtually no useful advice. In this sense the reports are remarkably unhelpful to teachers in social studies or other subjects.

It would be a mistake, however, to judge the reports only on their response to issues phrased in these ways. They were written not as practical guides to daily classroom practice, but as policy statements intended to stimulate concern over broader issues of curriculum and the condition of the teaching profession. We have not attempted an analysis of the merits of these broader policy statements. Nevertheless, teachers can find in the reports solid support for social studies in the curriculum, for meaningful participation of teachers in curriculum planning, for active inquiry as a major classroom activity, and for increased investment in teachers' professional development. The tone of the reports, their specific proposals, and the many actions of state agencies already underway create an opportune climate for far-reaching discussion about how schools should be organized to better serve students.⁹

Rather than asking only how the reports might affect or assist social studies teachers in specific ways, let us ask, "What can social studies teachers contribute to the debate which the reports have generated?" Social studies teachers with strong backgrounds in history and social sciences may provide special resources for analyzing problems of school reform.

That is, as students of organizational and individual behavior, social studies teachers should be able to suggest helpful insights to a school staff about how their particular school functions. A careful analysis of its political history, its staff and students, and its community context should lead to suggestions on locally appropriate strategies for enhancing goal consensus, commitment, collegiality, and productive staff development.

Admittedly, teachers are involved primarily in the work of teaching their subject to the students, not in setting explicit school policy in these areas. But a growing literature (e.g., Little, 1982; Purkey and Smith, 1983) suggests that they should become more directly involved in the organization of school life—as a matter of principle (a democratic entitlement to influence one's conditions of work) and as a vehicle for organizational efficiency (worker democracy and collegiality lead to greater productivity). Since social studies teachers' professional backgrounds suit them uniquely to contribute to the analysis of their own school, they could well consider the reports' concern for revitalizing commitment within schools a special invitation to assist in resolving these schoolwide issues.

By showing that the reports offer little assistance in resolving critical issues in social studies, we join other critical reviews. We should not, however, allow these critiques to be used as defenses of the status quo. The reports' shortcomings do not justify complacency, and they should not be permitted to blunt enthusiasm for improvement in social studies.

The relative failure of social studies curriculum reform in the 1960s was due in part to projects' neglect of several aspects of school life (Hertzberg, 1981) to which the reports now call attention. The reports' impassioned calls for enhanced educational quality, their endorsement of general education, their concern for the condition of teaching, and their support for deliberate development of local school culture can be used to support continuing work on issues of rationale, curriculum development, and pedagogy in social studies.

Although the reports offer opportunities for implementation of both conservative and progressive approaches to social studies, they manifest the consistent view that significant educational improvement within any given subject is unlikely to occur unless professionals in the field also work toward broader changes in school life. If social studies educators use the reports to help articulate and to develop constructive links between social learning and broader school culture, they will have applied the reports to great advantage.

NOTES

¹Summaries or lists of reports are available in Education Commission of the States (1983), Griesemer and Butler (1983), Becker (1984). Critical reviews of selected reports include Peterson (1983),Sizer (1983), Stedman and Smith (1983), *Educational Leadership* (1984), Hacker (1984), Leonard (1984), Passow (1984), Symposium . . . (1984), Yudof (1984).

²Research on cognitive and social development, while not conclusive, indicates that as students increase in age, their comprehension of social knowledge changes substantially (Piaget, 1962; Kohlberg, 1969; Turiel, 1983). Educators have argued that curriculum and teaching must become more responsive to the unique thought processes of young people (e.g., Lipsitz, 1977; Lickona, 1983).

³The reports tend to defend a required common curriculum on the ground that it will enhance equity: that minority, poor, and disadvantaged students can gain access to the same knowledge available to the affluent and the privileged, only if they study the same curriculum. Newmann and Kelly (1983) argue that unless a number of specific guidelines are attached to these recommendations, the dignity of many students will be violated.

⁴In the future, Adler's Paideia project will publish more detailed analyses of the subject matter to be taught didactically.

⁵The National Council for the Social Studies (1984) has published for discussion a scope and sequence plan that conforms in many ways to current practice.

⁶Conventional wisdom may suggest that one should study the local neighborhood before the federal government, the U.S. Civil War before the Vietnam War, or democracy in Greece before socialism in China, but

an equally strong case, logically and psychologically, can be made for studying such topics in the reverse order. Even when highly specific common requirements are established with a school, these are more likely to reflect political compromises unique to the interests of teachers in the school than a necessary conceptual structure for mastery of the subjects.

⁷Research that adequately addresses this question is rare, even within the "effective schools" literature. While there is some evidence to support the case for coaching and socratic teaching, it has not been synthesized well, and the reports did not address the status of empirical research on the issue.

⁸One survey indicated that more than 70 percent of the social studies teachers considered themselves to be interested in their subjects and adequately prepared to teach them. Only 4 percent considered lack of interest or inadequate preparation to be a serious problem (Weiss, p. 158).

⁹Recent reform initiatives in the states are described in *The Nation Responds* (1984).

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RELATED RESOURCES IN THE ERIC SYSTEM

The resources following are available through the ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) system. Each resource is identified by a six-digit number and two letters. "EJ" for journal articles, "ED" for other documents. Abstracts of and descriptive information about all ERIC documents are published in two cumulative indexes: Resources in Education (RIE) for ED listings and the Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE) for EJ listings. This information is also accessible through three major on-line computer searching systems: DIALOG, ORBIT, and BRS.

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Journal articles are not available in microfiche. If your local library does not have the relevant issue of a journal, you may be able to obtain a reprint from the University Microfilms International (UMI), 300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106. All orders must be accompanied by payment in full, plus postage, and must include the following information: title of the periodical, title of article, name of author, date of issue, volume number, issue number, and page number. Contact UMI for current price information.

Blackburn, Guy, and others. *"So You Want to Revise Social Studies, Now What?" A Starter Kit for Local School Curriculum Change*. Pontiac, MI: Oakland County Schools, 1983. 50 pp. ED 232 957. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97/PC-\$3.90.

A brief and flexible overview is presented of the steps that should be taken to revise social studies instruction. The booklet lists 10 steps in the revision process. Each step has a brief commentary followed by questions that a local curriculum planning group may want to consider. Some resources to help answer these questions are included. Also included is a bibliography of additional resources and readings. Included in the appendices are the revised National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines; elementary and secondary materials analysis forms; the textbook evaluation form used by the Boulder (Colorado) Public Schools system; elementary social studies criteria; and suggestions for sparking interest.

Boyer, Ernest L. "Reflections on the Great Debate of '83," *Phi Delta Kappan* 65 (Apr. 1984), pp. 525-30. EJ 296 767. Reprint available from UMI.

Major reports on education in 1983 have helped make education a top priority again. Such achievements as a renewed focus on teaching conditions and curriculum are countered, however, by a misguided search for panaceas and ambiguous federal support. The continuing debate on education should be conducted within a global context.

Brandt, Ron. "On Excellence and Mediocrity: A Conversation with Milton Goldberg," *Educational Leadership* 41 (Mar. 1984), pp. 17-19. EJ 295 078. Reprint available from UMI.

In response to a wide range of questions on "A Nation At Risk," the executive director of the National Commission on Excellence in Education defends its fundamental conclusions and discusses its impact and implications.

Davis, James E., ed. *Planning a Social Studies Program: Activities, Guidelines, and Resources* (Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium, 1983). 212 pp. ED 277 051. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97/PC-\$16.15.

A planning manual for teachers, parents, administrators, and students working on K-12 social studies curriculum development is presented. The

manual discusses six problems facing social studies educators and then presents 12 sequenced group activities corresponding to steps in the model. A list of resources, sources of instructional objectives, sample formats for scope-and-sequence statements, publishers of social studies materials, and a paper on evaluation as an instructional tool complete the guide.

Hepburn, Mary A., ed., *Democratic Education in Schools and Classrooms Bulletin 70* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1983). ERIC Clearinghouse No. SO 015 202. 132 pp. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97. Hard copy available from NCSS, 3501 Newark St., N.W., Washington, DC 20016. \$10.25.

The bulletin sets forth the NCSS position that schools should practice democracy and be able to instruct through modeling. The statements stress that what is taught from textbooks about the advantages of democracy should be exhibited within the school and that the school experience should provide young people with an immediate example of a democratic system. Various chapters describe how teachers can restructure their classes and ways in which entire schools have been successful in increasing student participation in decision making.

Hertzberg, Hazel Whitman, *Social Studies Reform 1880-1980* (Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1981). 201 pp. ED 211 429. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97/PC-\$16.15.

The purposes, methodologies, and curricula of the social studies over the past 100 years are examined. This history was written to provide a useful background for current efforts to reform the social studies.

Iglitzen, Lynne B. *Social Studies in the Eighties: Old Problems, Current Trends, New Responses*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1983. 11 pp. ED 229 326. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97/PC-\$2.15.

In a time when social studies education is considered non-essential and is forced to justify its existence, the importance of citizenship education cannot be ignored. Current economic trends have caused some schools to question the need for social studies, thereby offering fewer courses and limiting funding for materials and professional meetings. Part of the solution to this problem is to define the role of social studies and to offer national guidelines and standards for educators. It is also important that students become informed citizens, able to deal with the "new realities

of politics" by exercising their own judgments in dealing with the complexities of government.

Morrissett, Irving, and others, "The SPAN Report: Analysis and Proposals for the 1980s," *Social Education* 44, no. 7 (Nov-Dec 1980), pp. 558-86, 653. EJ 235 284. Reprint available from UMI.

Four articles discuss work completed by the two-year project SPAN (Social Studies Priorities, Practices, and Needs). The first two articles present broad ideas about the current and future status of social studies, the third outlines major recommendations, and the last presents a social roles rationale and framework to increase student learning and interest.

Morrissett, Irving, and others, ed., *Social Studies in the 1980s. A Report of Project SPAN* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1981). 157 pp. ED 221 449. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97/PC-\$7.40.

Selected and condensed portions of five reports prepared by Project SPAN (Social Studies Priorities, Practices, and Needs) are presented. The purpose of Project SPAN was to describe and assess the current and recent state of social studies/social science education, designate desired states to which social studies might or should aspire, and shape recommendations for achieving those desired states. A social roles approach, one of the several major alternatives to the current pattern of social studies, is described.

Parker, Walter, and John Jarolimek. *Citizenship and the Critical Role of the Social Studies*. NCSS Bulletin no. 72, Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium; Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1984. 61 pp. ED 244 880. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97/PC-\$5.65 plus postage.

Designed as a tool to help social studies educators promote their discipline, this volume outlines the critical role of social studies in the K-12 curriculum and the part social studies educators must take in assuring that this role is understood and accepted by parents, school boards, and legislators. Chapter 1 outlines the essential role that social studies plays in the general school curriculum by cultivating "democratic" citizens. Chapter 2 defines the special nature of a democratic citizen as one who participates in social, political, and economic processes. Chapter 3 reviews

the research on political socialization which supports the claim that a strong social studies curriculum is needed in each of the 13 years of formal schooling. The final chapter outlines the role of the social studies teacher in advocating the social studies.

Shaver, James P., and others, *An Interpretive Report on the Status of Pre-College Social Studies Education Based on Three NSF-Funded Studies* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1978). 28 pp. ED 164 363. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97/PC-\$3.90.

Findings of three studies to define the status and needs of social studies education demonstrated that only 10 to 20 percent of social studies teachers used New Social Studies materials and that the textbook was the dominant tool of instruction. Teachers believed that inquiry teaching is too demanding of students and an unproductive use of instructional time. The authors suggest that since teachers were found to be the key to student learning, they should be more involved in curriculum development.

Smith, Theodore, ed., *History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools. Kindergarten through Grade Twelve* (Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1981). 62 pp. ED 213 626. EDRS price: MF-\$0.97. Hard copy available from California State Department of Education, P.O. Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95802. \$2.25.

According to this framework, the central purpose of history/social science education is to prepare students to be humane, rational, understanding, and participating citizens in a diverse society and in an increasingly interdependent world. The criteria for evaluating instructional materials in history and the social sciences, sections of the Education Code requiring the observance of special events, and the anti-dogmatism policy of the California State Board of Education are provided.

Social Studies: A Maryland Curricula Framework (Baltimore, MD: Maryland State Department of Education, 1983). ERIC Clearinghouse No. SO 015 189.

Local Maryland school systems are provided with a structure for developing and designing comprehensive K-12 social studies programs. The material is organized around philosophy, goals, scope and sequence, and classroom instructional units. Each component is described in terms of its purpose, specific elements, and possible assessment and development. Sample graduation competency requirements and abridged National Council for the Social Studies curriculum guidelines are provided.

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